

# GEOMETRIC INTERPRETATION OF THE INVARIANTS OF A SURFACE IN $\mathbb{R}^4$ VIA THE TANGENT INDICATRIX AND THE NORMAL CURVATURE ELLIPSE

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**ABSTRACT.** At any point of a surface in the four-dimensional Euclidean space we consider the geometric configuration consisting of two figures: the tangent indicatrix, which is a conic in the tangent plane, and the normal curvature ellipse. We show that the basic geometric classes of surfaces in the four-dimensional Euclidean space, determined by conditions on their invariants, can be interpreted in terms of the properties of the two geometric figures. We give some non-trivial examples of surfaces from the classes in consideration.

## 1. INTRODUCTION

In this paper we deal with the theory of surfaces in the four-dimensional Euclidean space  $\mathbb{R}^4$ .

Let  $M^2$  be a surface in  $\mathbb{R}^4$  with tangent space  $T_p M^2$  at any point  $p \in M^2$ . In [4] we introduced the linear map  $\gamma$  of Weingarten type at any  $T_p M^2$  and sketched out the invariant theory of surfaces on the base of  $\gamma$ .

We show that the role of the map  $\gamma$  in the theory of surfaces in  $\mathbb{R}^4$  is similar to that of the Weingarten map in the theory of surfaces in  $\mathbb{R}^3$ .

First, the map  $\gamma$  generates two invariant functions  $k$  and  $\varkappa$ , analogous to the Gauss curvature and the mean curvature in  $\mathbb{R}^3$ . Here again the sign of the function  $k$  is a geometric invariant and the sign of  $\varkappa$  is invariant under the motions in  $\mathbb{R}^4$ . However, the sign of  $\varkappa$  changes under symmetries with respect to a hyperplane in  $\mathbb{R}^4$ . The invariants  $k$  and  $\varkappa$  divide the points of  $M^2$  into four types: flat, elliptic, hyperbolic and parabolic points. In [4] we gave a constructive classification of the surfaces consisting of flat points, i.e. satisfying the condition  $k = \varkappa = 0$ . Everywhere, in the present considerations we exclude the points at which  $k = \varkappa = 0$ .

Further, the map  $\gamma$  generates the second fundamental form  $II$  at any point  $p \in M^2$ . The notions of a normal curvature of a tangent, conjugate and asymptotic tangents are introduced in the standard way by means of  $II$ . The asymptotic tangents are characterized by zero normal curvature.

The first fundamental form  $I$  and the second fundamental form  $II$  generate principal tangents and principal lines, as in  $\mathbb{R}^3$ . Here, the points at which any tangent is principal ("umbilical" points) are characterized by zero mean curvature vector, i.e. the surfaces consisting of "umbilical" points are exactly the minimal surfaces in  $\mathbb{R}^4$ . The principal normal curvatures  $\nu'$  and  $\nu''$  arise in the standard way and the invariants  $k$  and  $\varkappa$  satisfy the equalities

$$k = \nu' \nu''; \quad \varkappa = \frac{\nu' + \nu''}{2}.$$

The indicatrix of Dupin at an arbitrary (non-flat) point of a surface in  $\mathbb{R}^3$  is introduced by means of the second fundamental form. Here, using the second fundamental form  $II$ , we

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introduce the indicatrix  $\chi$  at any point  $p \in M^2$  in the same way:

$$\chi : \nu' X^2 + \nu'' Y^2 = \varepsilon, \quad \varepsilon = \pm 1.$$

Then the elliptic, hyperbolic and parabolic points of a surface  $M^2$  are characterized in terms of the indicatrix  $\chi$  as in  $\mathbb{R}^3$ . The conjugacy in terms of the second fundamental form coincides with the conjugacy with respect to the indicatrix  $\chi$ .

In [4, 5] we proved that the surface  $M^2$  under consideration is with flat normal connection if and only if  $\varkappa = 0$ . In Section 3 we prove that:

*The surface  $M^2$  is minimal if and only if the indicatrix  $\chi$  is a circle.*

*The surface  $M^2$  is with flat normal connection if and only if the indicatrix  $\chi$  is a rectangular hyperbola (a Lorentz circle).*

We also characterize the surfaces with flat normal connection in terms of the properties of the normal curvature ellipse.

In Section 4 we give examples of surfaces with  $\varkappa = 0$ .

in Section 5 we give examples of surfaces with  $k = 0$ .

## 2. AN INTERPRETATION OF THE SECOND FUNDAMENTAL FORM

Let  $M^2 : z = z(u, v)$ ,  $(u, v) \in \mathcal{D}$  ( $\mathcal{D} \subset \mathbb{R}^2$ ) be a 2-dimensional surface in  $\mathbb{R}^4$ . The tangent space  $T_p M^2$  to  $M^2$  at an arbitrary point  $p = z(u, v)$  of  $M^2$  is  $\text{span}\{z_u, z_v\}$ . We choose an orthonormal normal frame field  $\{e_1, e_2\}$  of  $M^2$  so that the quadruple  $\{z_u, z_v, e_1, e_2\}$  is positive oriented in  $\mathbb{R}^4$ . Then the following derivative formulas hold:

$$\begin{aligned} \nabla'_{z_u} z_u &= z_{uu} = \Gamma_{11}^1 z_u + \Gamma_{11}^2 z_v + c_{11}^1 e_1 + c_{11}^2 e_2, \\ \nabla'_{z_u} z_v &= z_{uv} = \Gamma_{12}^1 z_u + \Gamma_{12}^2 z_v + c_{12}^1 e_1 + c_{12}^2 e_2, \\ \nabla'_{z_v} z_v &= z_{vv} = \Gamma_{22}^1 z_u + \Gamma_{22}^2 z_v + c_{22}^1 e_1 + c_{22}^2 e_2, \end{aligned}$$

where  $\Gamma_{ij}^k$  are the Christoffel's symbols and  $c_{ij}^k$ ,  $i, j, k = 1, 2$  are functions on  $M^2$ .

We use the standard denotations  $E(u, v) = g(z_u, z_u)$ ,  $F(u, v) = g(z_u, z_v)$ ,  $G(u, v) = g(z_v, z_v)$  for the coefficients of the first fundamental form and set  $W = \sqrt{EG - F^2}$ . Denoting by  $\sigma$  the second fundamental tensor of  $M^2$ , we have

$$\begin{aligned} \sigma(z_u, z_u) &= c_{11}^1 e_1 + c_{11}^2 e_2, \\ \sigma(z_u, z_v) &= c_{12}^1 e_1 + c_{12}^2 e_2, \\ \sigma(z_v, z_v) &= c_{22}^1 e_1 + c_{22}^2 e_2. \end{aligned}$$

In [4] we introduced a geometrically determined linear map  $\gamma$  in the tangent space at any point of a surface  $M^2$  and found invariants generated by this map.

We consider the functions

$$L = \frac{2}{W} \begin{vmatrix} c_{11}^1 & c_{12}^1 \\ c_{11}^2 & c_{12}^2 \end{vmatrix}, \quad M = \frac{1}{W} \begin{vmatrix} c_{11}^1 & c_{22}^1 \\ c_{11}^2 & c_{22}^2 \end{vmatrix}, \quad N = \frac{2}{W} \begin{vmatrix} c_{12}^1 & c_{22}^1 \\ c_{12}^2 & c_{22}^2 \end{vmatrix}.$$

Denoting

$$\gamma_1^1 = \frac{FM - GL}{EG - F^2}, \quad \gamma_1^2 = \frac{FL - EM}{EG - F^2}, \quad \gamma_2^1 = \frac{FN - GM}{EG - F^2}, \quad \gamma_2^2 = \frac{FM - EN}{EG - F^2},$$

we obtain the linear map

$$\gamma : T_p M^2 \rightarrow T_p M^2,$$

determined by the equalities

$$\begin{aligned}\gamma(z_u) &= \gamma_1^1 z_u + \gamma_1^2 z_v, \\ \gamma(z_v) &= \gamma_2^1 z_u + \gamma_2^2 z_v.\end{aligned}$$

The linear map  $\gamma$  of Weingarten type at the point  $p \in M^2$  is invariant with respect to changes of parameters on  $M^2$  as well as to motions in  $\mathbb{R}^4$ . This implies that the functions

$$k = \frac{LN - M^2}{EG - F^2}, \quad \varkappa = \frac{EN + GL - 2FM}{2(EG - F^2)}$$

are invariants of the surface  $M^2$ .

The invariant  $\varkappa$  is the curvature of the normal connection of the surface  $M^2$  in  $\mathbb{E}^4$ .

The invariants  $k$  and  $\varkappa$  divide the points of  $M^2$  into four types [4]: flat, elliptic, parabolic and hyperbolic. The surfaces consisting of flat points satisfy the conditions

$$k(u, v) = 0, \quad \varkappa(u, v) = 0, \quad (u, v) \in \mathcal{D},$$

or equivalently  $L(u, v) = 0, M(u, v) = 0, N(u, v) = 0, (u, v) \in \mathcal{D}$ . These surfaces are either planar surfaces (there exists a hyperplane  $\mathbb{R}^3 \subset \mathbb{R}^4$  containing  $M^2$ ) or developable ruled surfaces.

Further we consider surfaces free of flat points, i.e.  $(L, M, N) \neq (0, 0, 0)$ .

Let  $X = \alpha z_u + \beta z_v$ ,  $(\alpha, \beta) \neq (0, 0)$  be a tangent vector at a point  $p \in M^2$ . The Weingarten map  $\gamma$  determines a second fundamental form of the surface  $M^2$  at  $p \in M^2$  as follows:

$$II(\alpha, \beta) = -g(\gamma(X), X) = L\alpha^2 + 2M\alpha\beta + N\beta^2, \quad \alpha, \beta \in \mathbb{R}.$$

As in the classical differential geometry of surfaces in  $\mathbb{R}^3$  the second fundamental form  $II$  determines conjugate tangents at a point  $p$  of  $M^2$ .

Two tangents  $g_1 : X = \alpha_1 z_u + \beta_1 z_v$  and  $g_2 : X = \alpha_2 z_u + \beta_2 z_v$  are said to be *conjugate tangents* if  $II(\alpha_1, \beta_1; \alpha_2, \beta_2) = 0$ , i.e.

$$L\alpha_1\alpha_2 + M(\alpha_1\beta_2 + \alpha_2\beta_1) + N\beta_1\beta_2 = 0.$$

A tangent  $g : X = \alpha z_u + \beta z_v$  is said to be *asymptotic* if it is self-conjugate, i.e.  $L\alpha^2 + 2M\alpha\beta + N\beta^2 = 0$ .

A tangent  $g : X = \alpha z_u + \beta z_v$  is said to be *principal* if it is perpendicular to its conjugate. The equation for the principal tangents at a point  $p \in M^2$  is

$$\left| \begin{array}{cc} E & F \\ L & M \end{array} \right| \alpha^2 + \left| \begin{array}{cc} E & G \\ L & N \end{array} \right| \alpha\beta + \left| \begin{array}{cc} F & G \\ M & N \end{array} \right| \beta^2 = 0.$$

A line  $c : u = u(q), v = v(q); q \in J$  on  $M^2$  is said to be a *principal line* (a *line of curvature*) if its tangent at any point is principal. The surface  $M^2$  is parameterized with respect to the principal lines if and only if

$$F = 0, \quad M = 0.$$

Let  $M^2$  be parameterized with respect to the principal lines and denote the unit vector fields  $x = \frac{z_u}{\sqrt{E}}, y = \frac{z_v}{\sqrt{G}}$ . The equality  $M = 0$  implies that the normal vector fields  $\sigma(x, x)$  and  $\sigma(y, y)$  are collinear. We denote by  $b$  a unit normal vector field collinear with  $\sigma(x, x)$  and  $\sigma(y, y)$ , and by  $l$  the unit normal vector field such that  $\{x, y, b, l\}$  is a positive oriented orthonormal frame field of  $M^2$  (the two vectors  $\{b, l\}$  are determined up to a sign). Thus we

obtain a geometrically determined orthonormal frame field  $\{x, y, b, l\}$  at each point  $p \in M^2$ . With respect to the frame field  $\{x, y, b, l\}$  we have the following formulas:

$$(2.1) \quad \begin{aligned} \sigma(x, x) &= \nu_1 b; \\ \sigma(x, y) &= \lambda b + \mu l; \\ \sigma(y, y) &= \nu_2 b, \end{aligned}$$

where  $\nu_1, \nu_2, \lambda, \mu$  are invariant functions, whose signs depend on the pair  $\{b, l\}$ .

Hence the invariants  $k$ ,  $\varkappa$ , and the Gauss curvature  $K$  of  $M^2$  are expressed as follows:

$$(2.2) \quad k = -4\nu_1 \nu_2 \mu^2, \quad \varkappa = (\nu_1 - \nu_2)\mu, \quad K = \nu_1 \nu_2 - (\lambda^2 + \mu^2).$$

The normal mean curvature vector field  $H$  of  $M^2$  is  $H = \frac{\sigma(x, x) + \sigma(y, y)}{2} = \frac{\nu_1 + \nu_2}{2} b$ .

Let  $M^2$  be a surface parameterized by principal tangents and  $g : X = \alpha z_u + \beta z_v$  be an arbitrary tangent of  $M^2$ . We call the function  $\nu_g = \frac{II(\alpha, \beta)}{I(\alpha, \beta)}$  the *normal curvature* of  $g$ . Obviously, a tangent  $g$  is asymptotic if and only if its normal curvature is zero.

The normal curvatures  $\nu' = \frac{L}{E}$  and  $\nu'' = \frac{N}{G}$  of the principal tangents are said to be *principal normal curvatures* of  $M^2$ . If  $g$  is an arbitrary tangent with normal curvature  $\nu_g$ , and  $\varphi = \angle(g, z_u)$ , then the following Euler formula holds

$$\nu_g = \cos^2 \varphi \nu' + \sin^2 \varphi \nu''.$$

The invariants  $k$  and  $\varkappa$  of  $M^2$  are expressed by the principal normal curvatures  $\nu'$  and  $\nu''$  as follows:

$$(2.3) \quad k = \nu' \nu''; \quad \varkappa = \frac{\nu' + \nu''}{2}.$$

Hence, the invariants  $k$  and  $\varkappa$  of  $M^2$  play the same role in the differential geometry of surfaces in  $\mathbb{R}^4$  as the Gaussian curvature and the mean curvature in the classical differential geometry of surfaces in  $\mathbb{R}^3$ .

As in the theory of surfaces in  $\mathbb{R}^3$ , we consider the indicatrix  $\chi$  in the tangent space  $T_p M^2$  at an arbitrary point  $p$  of  $M^2$ , defined by

$$\chi : \nu' X^2 + \nu'' Y^2 = \varepsilon, \quad \varepsilon = \pm 1.$$

If  $p$  is an elliptic point ( $k > 0$ ), then the indicatrix  $\chi$  is an ellipse. The axes of  $\chi$  are collinear with the principal directions at the point  $p$ , and the lengths of the axes are  $\frac{2}{\sqrt{|\nu'|}}$

and  $\frac{2}{\sqrt{|\nu''|}}$ .

If  $p$  is a hyperbolic point ( $k < 0$ ), then the indicatrix  $\chi$  consists of two hyperbolas. For the sake of simplicity we say that  $\chi$  is a hyperbola. The axes of  $\chi$  are collinear with the principal directions, and the lengths of the axes are  $\frac{2}{\sqrt{|\nu'|}}$  and  $\frac{2}{\sqrt{|\nu''|}}$ .

If  $p$  is a parabolic point ( $k = 0$ ), then the indicatrix  $\chi$  consists of two straight lines parallel to the principal direction with non-zero normal curvature.

The following statement holds good:

**Proposition 2.1.** *Two tangents  $g_1$  and  $g_2$  are conjugate tangents of  $M^2$  if and only if  $g_1$  and  $g_2$  are conjugate with respect to the indicatrix  $\chi$ .*

### 3. CLASSES OF SURFACES CHARACTERIZED IN TERMS OF THE TANGENT INDICATRIX AND THE NORMAL CURVATURE ELLIPSE

Each surface  $M^2$  in  $\mathbb{R}^4$  satisfies the following inequality:

$$\varkappa^2 - k \geq 0.$$

The minimal surfaces in  $\mathbb{R}^4$  are characterized by

**Proposition 3.1.** [4] *Let  $M^2$  be a surface in  $\mathbb{R}^4$  free of flat points. Then  $M^2$  is minimal if and only if*

$$\varkappa^2 - k = 0.$$

The surfaces with flat normal connection are characterized by

**Proposition 3.2.** *Let  $M^2$  be a surface in  $\mathbb{R}^4$  free of flat points. Then  $M^2$  is a surface with flat normal connection if and only if*

$$\varkappa = 0.$$

We note that the condition  $\varkappa = 0$  implies that  $k < 0$  and the surface  $M^2$  has two families of orthogonal asymptotic lines.

Now we shall characterize the minimal surfaces and the surfaces with flat normal connection in terms of the tangent indicatrix of the surface.

**Proposition 3.3.** *Let  $M^2$  be a surface in  $\mathbb{R}^4$  free of flat points. Then  $M^2$  is minimal if and only if at each point of  $M^2$  the tangent indicatrix  $\chi$  is a circle.*

*Proof:* Let  $M^2$  be a surface in  $\mathbb{R}^4$  free of flat points. From equalities (2.3) it follows that

$$\varkappa^2 - k = \left( \frac{\nu' - \nu''}{2} \right)^2.$$

Obviously  $\varkappa^2 - k = 0$  if and only if  $\nu' = \nu''$ . Applying Proposition 3.1, we get that  $M^2$  is minimal if and only if  $\chi$  is a circle.  $\square$

**Proposition 3.4.** *Let  $M^2$  be a surface in  $\mathbb{R}^4$  free of flat points. Then  $M^2$  is a surface of flat normal connection if and only if at each point of  $M^2$  the tangent indicatrix  $\chi$  is a rectangular hyperbola (a Lorentz circle).*

*Proof:* Let  $M^2$  be a surface in  $\mathbb{R}^4$  free of flat points. From (2.3) it follows that  $\varkappa = 0$  if and only if  $\nu'' = -\nu'$ .

If  $M^2$  is a surface with flat normal connection, then  $k < 0$ , and hence  $\chi$  is a hyperbola. From  $\nu'' = -\nu'$  it follows that the semi-axes of  $\chi$  are equal to  $\frac{1}{\sqrt{|\nu'|}}$ , i.e.  $\chi$  is a rectangular hyperbola.

Conversely, if  $\chi$  is a rectangular hyperbola, then  $\nu'' = -\nu'$ , which implies that  $M^2$  is a surface with flat normal connection.  $\square$

The minimal surfaces and the surfaces with flat normal connection can also be characterized in terms of the ellipse of normal curvature.

Let us recall that the *ellipse of normal curvature* at a point  $p$  of a surface  $M^2$  in  $\mathbb{R}^4$  is the ellipse in the normal space at the point  $p$  given by  $\{\sigma(x, x) : x \in T_p M^2, g(x, x) = 1\}$  [7, 8]. Let  $\{x, y\}$  be an orthonormal base of the tangent space  $T_p M^2$  at  $p$ . Then, for any  $v = \cos \psi x + \sin \psi y$ , we have

$$\sigma(v, v) = H + \cos 2\psi \frac{\sigma(x, x) - \sigma(y, y)}{2} + \sin 2\psi \sigma(x, y),$$

where  $H = \frac{\sigma(x, x) + \sigma(y, y)}{2}$  is the mean curvature vector of  $M^2$  at  $p$ . So, when  $v$  goes once around the unit tangent circle, the vector  $\sigma(v, v)$  goes twice around the ellipse centered at  $H$ . The vectors  $\frac{\sigma(x, x) - \sigma(y, y)}{2}$  and  $\sigma(x, y)$  determine conjugate directions of the ellipse.

A surface  $M^2$  in  $\mathbb{R}^4$  is called *super-conformal* [3] if at any point of  $M^2$  the ellipse of curvature is a circle. In [3] it is given an explicit construction of any simply connected super-conformal surface in  $\mathbb{R}^4$  that is free of minimal and flat points.

Obviously,  $M^2$  is minimal if and only if for each point  $p \in M^2$  the ellipse of curvature is centered at  $p$ .

The minimal surfaces in  $\mathbb{R}^4$  are divided into two subclasses:

- the subclass of minimal super-conformal surfaces, characterized by the condition that the ellipse of curvature is a circle;
- subclass of minimal surfaces of general type, characterized by the condition that the ellipse of curvature is not a circle.

In [5] it is proved that on any minimal surface  $M^2$  the Gauss curvature  $K$  and the normal curvature  $\varkappa$  satisfy the following inequality

$$K^2 - \varkappa^2 \geq 0.$$

The two subclasses of minimal surfaces are characterized in terms of the invariants  $K$  and  $\varkappa$  as follows:

- the class of minimal super-conformal surfaces is characterized by  $K^2 - \varkappa^2 = 0$ ;
- the class of minimal surfaces of general type is characterized by  $K^2 - \varkappa^2 > 0$ .

The class of minimal super-conformal surfaces in  $\mathbb{R}^4$  is locally equivalent to the class of holomorphic curves in  $\mathbb{C}^2 \equiv \mathbb{R}^4$ .

The surfaces with flat normal connection are characterized in terms of the ellipse of normal curvature as follows

**Proposition 3.5.** *Let  $M^2$  be a surface in  $\mathbb{R}^4$  free of flat points. Then  $M^2$  is a surface with flat normal connection if and only if for each point  $p \in M^2$  the ellipse of normal curvature is a line segment, which is not collinear with the mean curvature vector field.*

*Proof:* In [1] it is proved that the curvature of the normal connection  $\varkappa$  of a surface  $M^2$  in  $\mathbb{R}^4$  is the Gauss torsion  $\varkappa_G$  of  $M^2$ . The notion of the Gauss torsion is introduced by É. Cartan [2] for a  $p$ -dimensional submanifold of an  $n$ -dimensional Riemannian manifold and is given by the Euler curvatures. In case of a 2-dimensional surface  $M^2$  in  $\mathbb{R}^4$  the Gauss torsion at a point  $p \in M^2$  is equal to  $2ab$ , where  $a$  and  $b$  are the semi-axis of the ellipse of normal curvature at  $p$ . Hence,  $\varkappa = 0$  if and only if the ellipse of curvature is a line segment.

Let  $M^2$  be a surface with flat normal connection, i.e.  $\varkappa = 0$ ,  $k \neq 0$ . From (2.2) it follows, that  $\nu_1 = \nu_2$ . Further, equalities (2.1) imply that for each  $v = \cos \psi x + \sin \psi y$ , we have  $\sigma(v, v) = H + \sin 2\psi(\lambda b + \mu l)$ . So, when  $v$  goes once around the unit tangent circle, the vector  $\sigma(v, v)$  goes twice along the line segment collinear with  $\lambda b + \mu l$  and centered at  $H$ . The mean curvature vector field is  $H = \nu_1 b$ . Since  $k \neq 0$  then  $\mu \neq 0$ , and the line segment is not collinear with  $H$ .  $\square$

In case of  $\lambda = 0$  the mean curvature vector field  $H$  is orthogonal to the line segment, while in case of  $\lambda \neq 0$  the mean curvature vector field  $H$  is not orthogonal to the line segment. The length  $d$  of the line segment is

$$d = \sqrt{\lambda^2 + \mu^2} = \sqrt{H^2 - K}.$$

So, there arises a subclass of surfaces with flat normal connection, characterized by the conditions:

$$K = 0 \quad \text{or} \quad d = \|H\|.$$

Proposition 3.4 and Proposition 3.5 give us the following

**Corollary 3.6.** *Let  $M^2$  be a surface in  $\mathbb{R}^4$  free of flat points. Then the tangent indicatrix  $\chi$  is a rectangular hyperbola (a Lorentz circle) if and only if the ellipse of normal curvature is a line segment, which is not collinear with the mean curvature vector field.*

#### 4. EXAMPLES OF SURFACES WITH FLAT NORMAL CONNECTION

In this section we construct a family of surfaces with flat normal connection lying on a standard rotational hypersurface in  $\mathbb{R}^4$ .

Let  $\{e_1, e_2, e_3, e_4\}$  be the standard orthonormal frame in  $\mathbb{R}^4$ , and  $S^2(1)$  be a 2-dimensional sphere in  $\mathbb{R}^3 = \text{span}\{e_1, e_2, e_3\}$ , centered at the origin  $O$ . We consider a smooth curve  $c : l = l(v), v \in J, J \subset \mathbb{R}$  on  $S^2(1)$ , parameterized by the arc-length ( $l'^2(v) = 1$ ). We denote  $t = l'$  and consider the moving frame field  $\text{span}\{t(v), n(v), l(v)\}$  of the curve  $c$  on  $S^2(1)$ . With respect to this orthonormal frame field the following Frenet formulas hold good:

$$(4.1) \quad \begin{aligned} l' &= t; \\ t' &= \kappa n - l; \\ n' &= -\kappa t, \end{aligned}$$

where  $\kappa$  is the spherical curvature of  $c$ .

Let  $f = f(u), g = g(u)$  be smooth functions, defined in an interval  $I \subset \mathbb{R}$ , such that  $\dot{f}^2(u) + \dot{g}^2(u) = 1, u \in I$ . Now we construct a surface  $M^2$  in  $\mathbb{R}^4$  in the following way:

$$(4.2) \quad M^2 : z(u, v) = f(u)l(v) + g(u)e_4, \quad u \in I, v \in J.$$

The surface  $M^2$  lies on the rotational hypersurface  $M^3$  in  $\mathbb{R}^4$  obtained by the rotation of the meridian curve  $m : u \rightarrow (f(u), g(u))$  around the  $Oe_4$ -axis in  $\mathbb{R}^4$ . Since  $M^2$  consists of meridians of  $M^3$ , we call  $M^2$  a *meridian surface*.

The tangent space of  $M^2$  is spanned by the vector fields:

$$\begin{aligned} z_u &= \dot{f}l + \dot{g}e_4; \\ z_v &= ft, \end{aligned}$$

and hence the coefficients of the first fundamental form of  $M^2$  are  $E = 1; F = 0; G = f^2(u)$ . Taking into account (4.1), we calculate the second partial derivatives of  $z(u, v)$ :

$$\begin{aligned} z_{uu} &= \ddot{f}l + \ddot{g}e_4; \\ z_{uv} &= \dot{f}t; \\ z_{vv} &= f\kappa n - fl. \end{aligned}$$

Let us denote  $x = z_u, y = \frac{z_v}{f} = t$  and consider the following orthonormal normal frame field of  $M^2$ :

$$n_1 = n(v); \quad n_2 = -\dot{g}(u)l(v) + \dot{f}(u)e_4.$$

Thus we obtain a positive orthonormal frame field  $\{x, y, n_1, n_2\}$  of  $M^2$ . If we denote by  $\kappa_m$  the curvature of the meridian curve  $m$ , i.e.  $\kappa_m(u) = \dot{f}(u)\ddot{g}(u) - \dot{g}(u)\ddot{f}(u) = \frac{-\ddot{f}(u)}{\sqrt{1 - \dot{f}^2(u)}}$ ,

then we get the following derivative formulas of  $M^2$ :

$$(4.3) \quad \begin{aligned} \nabla'_x x &= \kappa_m n_2; & \nabla'_x n_1 &= 0; \\ \nabla'_x y &= 0; & \nabla'_y n_1 &= -\frac{\kappa}{f} y; \\ \nabla'_y x &= \frac{\dot{f}}{f} y; & \nabla'_x n_2 &= -\kappa_m x; \\ \nabla'_y y &= -\frac{\dot{f}}{f} x + \frac{\kappa}{f} n_1 + \frac{\dot{g}}{f} n_2; & \nabla'_y n_2 &= -\frac{\dot{g}}{f} y. \end{aligned}$$

The coefficients of the second fundamental form of  $M^2$  are  $L = N = 0$ ,  $M = -\kappa_m(u) \kappa(v)$ . Taking into account (4.3), we find the invariants  $k$ ,  $\varkappa$ ,  $K$ :

$$(4.4) \quad k = -\frac{\kappa_m^2(u) \kappa^2(v)}{f^2(u)}, \quad \varkappa = 0; \quad K = \frac{\kappa_m(u) \dot{g}(u)}{f(u)}.$$

The equality  $\varkappa = 0$  implies that  $M^2$  is a surface with flat normal connection.

The mean curvature vector field  $H$  is given by

$$(4.5) \quad H = \frac{\kappa}{2f} n_1 + \frac{\dot{g} + f \kappa_m}{2f} n_2.$$

There are three main classes of meridian surfaces:

I.  $\kappa = 0$ , i.e. the curve  $c$  is a great circle on  $S^2(1)$ . In this case  $n_1 = \text{const}$ , and  $M^2$  is a planar surface lying in the constant 3-dimensional space spanned by  $\{x, y, n_2\}$ . Particularly, if in addition  $\kappa_m = 0$ , i.e. the meridian curve lies on a straight line, then  $M^2$  is a developable surface in the 3-dimensional space  $\text{span}\{x, y, n_2\}$ .

II.  $\kappa_m = 0$ , i.e. the meridian curve is part of a straight line. In such case  $k = \varkappa = K = 0$ , and  $M^2$  is a developable ruled surface. If in addition  $\kappa = \text{const}$ , i.e.  $c$  is a circle on  $S^2(1)$ , then  $M^2$  is a developable ruled surface in a 3-dimensional space. If  $\kappa \neq \text{const}$ , i.e.  $c$  is not a circle on  $S^2(1)$ , then  $M^2$  is a developable ruled surface in  $\mathbb{R}^4$ .

III.  $\kappa_m \kappa \neq 0$ , i.e.  $c$  is not a great circle on  $S^2(1)$ , and  $m$  is not a straight line. In this general case the invariant function  $k < 0$ , which implies that there exist two systems of asymptotic lines on  $M^2$ . The parametric lines of  $M^2$  given by (4.2) are orthogonal and asymptotic.

Let  $M^2$  be a meridian surface of the general class. Now we are going to find the meridian surfaces with:

- constant Gauss curvature  $K$ ;
- constant mean curvature;
- constant invariant function  $k$ .

**Proposition 4.1.** *Let  $M^2$  be a meridian surface in  $\mathbb{R}^4$ . Then  $M^2$  has constant non-zero Gauss curvature  $K$  if and only if the meridian  $m$  is given by*

$$\begin{aligned} f(u) &= \alpha \cos \sqrt{K} u + \beta \sin \sqrt{K} u, & K > 0; \\ f(u) &= \alpha \cosh \sqrt{-K} u + \beta \sinh \sqrt{-K} u, & K < 0, \end{aligned}$$

where  $\alpha$  and  $\beta$  are constants.

*Proof:* Using (4.4) and  $\dot{f}^2 + \dot{g}^2 = 1$ , we obtain that  $M^2$  has constant Gauss curvature  $K \neq 0$  if and only if the meridian  $m$  satisfies the following differential equation

$$\ddot{f}(u) + K f(u) = 0.$$

The general solution of the above equation is given by

$$\begin{aligned} f(u) &= \alpha \cos \sqrt{K}u + \beta \sin \sqrt{K}u, & \text{in case } K > 0; \\ f(u) &= \alpha \cosh \sqrt{-K}u + \beta \sinh \sqrt{-K}u, & \text{in case } K < 0, \end{aligned}$$

where  $\alpha$  and  $\beta$  are constants. The function  $g(u)$  is determined by  $\dot{g}(u) = \sqrt{1 - \dot{f}^2(u)}$ .  $\square$

The equality (4.5) implies that the mean curvature of  $M^2$  is given by

$$(4.6) \quad ||H|| = \sqrt{\frac{\kappa^2(v) + (\dot{g}(u) + f(u)\kappa_m(u))^2}{4f^2(u)}}.$$

The meridian surfaces with constant mean curvature (CMC meridian surfaces) are described in

**Proposition 4.2.** *Let  $M^2$  be a meridian surface in  $\mathbb{R}^4$ . Then  $M^2$  has constant mean curvature  $||H|| = a = \text{const}$ ,  $a \neq 0$  if and only if the curve  $c$  on  $S^2(1)$  is a circle with constant spherical curvature  $\kappa = \text{const} = b$ ,  $b \neq 0$ , and the meridian  $m$  is determined by the following differential equation:*

$$(1 - \dot{f}^2 - f\ddot{f})^2 = (1 - \dot{f}^2)(4a^2f^2 - b^2).$$

*Proof:* From (4.6) it follows that  $||H|| = a$  if and only if

$$\kappa^2(v) = 4a^2f^2(u) - (\dot{g}(u) + f(u)\kappa_m(u))^2,$$

which implies

$$(4.7) \quad \begin{aligned} \kappa &= \text{const} = b, b \neq 0; \\ 4a^2f^2(u) - (\dot{g}(u) + f(u)\kappa_m(u))^2 &= b^2. \end{aligned}$$

The first equality of (4.7) implies that the spherical curve  $c$  has constant spherical curvature  $\kappa = b$ , i.e.  $c$  is a circle. Using that  $\dot{f}^2 + \dot{g}^2 = 1$ , and  $\kappa_m = \dot{f}\ddot{g} - \dot{g}\ddot{f}$  we calculate that  $\dot{g} + f\kappa_m = \frac{1 - \dot{f}^2 - f\ddot{f}}{\sqrt{1 - \dot{f}^2}}$ . Hence, the second equality of (4.7) gives the following differential equation for the meridian  $m$ :

$$(4.8) \quad (1 - \dot{f}^2 - f\ddot{f})^2 = (1 - \dot{f}^2)(4a^2f^2 - b^2).$$

Further, if we set  $\dot{f} = y(f)$  in equation (4.8), we obtain that the function  $y = y(t)$  is a solution of the following differential equation

$$1 - y^2 - \frac{t}{2}(y^2)' = \sqrt{1 - y^2}\sqrt{4a^2t^2 - b^2}.$$

The general solution of the above equation is given by

$$(4.9) \quad y(t) = \sqrt{1 - \frac{1}{t^2} \left( C + \frac{t}{2}\sqrt{4a^2t^2 - b^2} - \frac{b^2}{4a} \ln |2at + \sqrt{4a^2t^2 - b^2}| \right)^2}; \quad C = \text{const.}$$

The function  $f(u)$  is determined by  $\dot{f} = y(f)$  and (4.9). The function  $g(u)$  is defined by  $\dot{g}(u) = \sqrt{1 - \dot{f}^2(u)}$ .  $\square$

At the end of this section we shall find the meridian surfaces with constant invariant  $k$ .

**Proposition 4.3.** *Let  $M^2$  be a meridian surface in  $\mathbb{R}^4$ . Then  $M^2$  has a constant invariant  $k = \text{const} = -a^2$ ,  $a \neq 0$  if and only if the curve  $c$  on  $S^2(1)$  is a circle with spherical curvature  $\kappa = \text{const} = b$ ,  $b \neq 0$ , and the meridian  $m$  is determined by the following differential equation:*

$$\ddot{f}(u) = \mp \frac{a}{b} f(u) \sqrt{1 - \dot{f}^2(u)}.$$

*Proof:* Using (4.4) we obtain that  $k = \text{const} = -a^2$ ,  $a \neq 0$  if and only if  $\kappa^2(v)\kappa_m^2(u) = a^2 f^2(u)$ . Hence,

$$\kappa(v) = \pm a \frac{f(u)}{\kappa_m(u)}.$$

The last equality implies

$$(4.10) \quad \begin{aligned} \kappa &= \text{const} = b, b \neq 0; \\ \pm a \frac{f(u)}{\kappa_m(u)} &= b. \end{aligned}$$

The first equality of (4.10) implies that the spherical curve  $c$  has constant spherical curvature  $\kappa = b$ , i.e.  $c$  is a circle. The second equality of (4.10) gives the following differential equation for the function  $f(u)$ :

$$(4.11) \quad \frac{\ddot{f}(u)}{\sqrt{1 - \dot{f}^2(u)}} = \mp \frac{a}{b} f(u).$$

Again setting  $\dot{f} = y(f)$  in equation (4.11), we obtain that the function  $y = y(t)$  is a solution of the following differential equation

$$\frac{yy'}{\sqrt{1 - y^2}} = \mp \frac{a}{b} t.$$

The general solution of the above equation is given by

$$(4.12) \quad y(t) = \sqrt{1 - \left(C \pm \frac{a}{b} \frac{t^2}{2}\right)^2}; \quad C = \text{const.}$$

The function  $f(u)$  is determined by  $\dot{f} = y(f)$  and (4.12). The function  $g(u)$  is defined by  $\dot{g}(u) = \sqrt{1 - \dot{f}^2(u)}$ .  $\square$

## 5. EXAMPLES OF SURFACES CONSISTING OF PARABOLIC POINTS

In this section we shall find the generalized (in the sense of C. Moore) rotational surfaces in  $\mathbb{R}^4$ , consisting of parabolic points.

We consider a surface  $M^2$  in  $\mathbb{R}^4$  given by

$$(5.1) \quad z(u, v) = (f(u) \cos \alpha v, f(u) \sin \alpha v, g(u) \cos \beta v, g(u) \sin \beta v); \quad u \in J \subset \mathbb{R}, v \in [0; 2\pi],$$

where  $f(u)$  and  $g(u)$  are smooth functions, satisfying  $\alpha^2 f^2(u) + \beta^2 g^2(u) > 0$ ,  $f'^2(u) + g'^2(u) > 0$ ,  $u \in J$ , and  $\alpha, \beta$  are positive constants.

Each parametric curve  $u = u_0 = \text{const}$  of  $M^2$  is given by

$$c_v : z(v) = (a \cos \alpha v, a \sin \alpha v, b \cos \beta v, b \sin \beta v); \quad a = f(u_0), b = g(u_0)$$

and its Frenet curvatures are

$$\kappa_{c_v} = \sqrt{\frac{a^2\alpha^4 + b^2\beta^4}{a^2\alpha^2 + b^2\beta^2}}; \quad \tau_{c_v} = \frac{ab\alpha\beta(\alpha^2 - \beta^2)}{\sqrt{a^2\alpha^4 + b^2\beta^4}\sqrt{a^2\alpha^2 + b^2\beta^2}}; \quad \sigma_{c_v} = \frac{\alpha\beta\sqrt{a^2\alpha^2 + b^2\beta^2}}{\sqrt{a^2\alpha^4 + b^2\beta^4}}.$$

Hence, in case of  $\alpha \neq \beta$  each parametric curve  $u = \text{const}$  is a curve in  $\mathbb{R}^4$  with constant curvatures, and in case of  $\alpha = \beta$  each parametric curve  $u = \text{const}$  is a circle.

Each parametric curve  $v = v_0 = \text{const}$  of  $M^2$  is given by

$$c_u : z(u) = (A_1 f(u), A_2 f(u), B_1 g(u), B_2 g(u)),$$

where  $A_1 = \cos \alpha v_0$ ,  $A_2 = \sin \alpha v_0$ ,  $B_1 = \cos \beta v_0$ ,  $B_2 = \sin \beta v_0$ . The Frenet curvatures of  $c_u$  are expressed as follows:

$$\kappa_{c_u} = \frac{|g'f'' - f'g''|}{(\sqrt{f'^2 + g'^2})^3}; \quad \tau_{c_u} = 0.$$

Hence,  $c_u$  is a plane curve with curvature  $\kappa_{c_u} = \frac{|g'f'' - f'g''|}{(\sqrt{f'^2 + g'^2})^3}$ . So, for each  $v = \text{const}$  the parametric curves  $c_u$  are congruent in  $\mathbb{R}^4$ . We call these curves *meridians* of  $M^2$ .

Considering general rotations in  $\mathbb{R}^4$ , C. Moore introduced general rotational surfaces [6] (see also [7, 8]). The surface  $M^2$ , given by (5.1) is a general rotational surface whose meridians lie in two-dimensional planes.

The tangent space of  $M^2$  is spanned by the vector fields

$$\begin{aligned} z_u &= (f' \cos \alpha v, f' \sin \alpha v, g' \cos \beta v, g' \sin \beta v); \\ z_v &= (-\alpha f \sin \alpha v, \alpha f \cos \alpha v, -\beta g \sin \beta v, \beta g \cos \beta v). \end{aligned}$$

Hence, the coefficients of the first fundamental form are  $E = f'^2(u) + g'^2(u)$ ;  $F = 0$ ;  $G = \alpha^2 f^2(u) + \beta^2 g^2(u)$  and  $W = \sqrt{(f'^2 + g'^2)(\alpha^2 f^2 + \beta^2 g^2)}$ . We consider the following orthonormal tangent frame field

$$\begin{aligned} x &= \frac{1}{\sqrt{f'^2 + g'^2}} (f' \cos \alpha v, f' \sin \alpha v, g' \cos \beta v, g' \sin \beta v); \\ y &= \frac{1}{\sqrt{\alpha^2 f^2 + \beta^2 g^2}} (-\alpha f \sin \alpha v, \alpha f \cos \alpha v, -\beta g \sin \beta v, \beta g \cos \beta v). \end{aligned}$$

The second partial derivatives of  $z(u, v)$  are expressed as follows

$$\begin{aligned} z_{uu} &= (f'' \cos \alpha v, f'' \sin \alpha v, g'' \cos \beta v, g'' \sin \beta v); \\ z_{uv} &= (-\alpha f' \sin \alpha v, \alpha f' \cos \alpha v, -\beta g' \sin \beta v, \beta g' \cos \beta v); \\ z_{vv} &= (-\alpha^2 f \cos \alpha v, -\alpha^2 f \sin \alpha v, -\beta^2 g \cos \beta v, -\beta^2 g \sin \beta v). \end{aligned}$$

Now let us consider the following orthonormal normal frame field

$$\begin{aligned} n_1 &= \frac{1}{\sqrt{f'^2 + g'^2}} (g' \cos \alpha v, g' \sin \alpha v, -f' \cos \beta v, -f' \sin \beta v); \\ n_2 &= \frac{1}{\sqrt{\alpha^2 f^2 + \beta^2 g^2}} (-\beta g \sin \alpha v, \beta g \cos \alpha v, \alpha f \sin \beta v, -\alpha f \cos \beta v). \end{aligned}$$

It is easy to verify that  $\{x, y, n_1, n_2\}$  is a positive oriented orthonormal frame field in  $\mathbb{R}^4$ .

We calculate the functions  $c_{ij}^k$ ,  $i, j, k = 1, 2$ :

$$\begin{aligned} c_{11}^1 &= g(z_{uu}, n_1) = \frac{g'f'' - f'g''}{\sqrt{f'^2 + g'^2}}; & c_{11}^2 &= g(z_{uu}, n_2) = 0; \\ c_{12}^1 &= g(z_{uv}, n_1) = 0; & c_{12}^2 &= g(z_{uv}, n_2) = ds \frac{\alpha\beta(gf' - fg')}{\sqrt{\alpha^2f^2 + \beta^2g^2}}; \\ c_{22}^1 &= g(z_{vv}, n_1) = \frac{\beta^2gf' - \alpha^2fg'}{\sqrt{f'^2 + g'^2}}; & c_{22}^2 &= g(z_{vv}, n_2) = 0. \end{aligned}$$

Therefore the coefficients  $L$ ,  $M$  and  $N$  of the second fundamental form of  $M^2$  are expressed as follows:

$$L = \frac{2\alpha\beta(gf' - fg')(g'f'' - f'g'')}{(\alpha^2f^2 + \beta^2g^2)(f'^2 + g'^2)}; \quad M = 0; \quad N = \frac{-2\alpha\beta(gf' - fg')(\beta^2gf' - \alpha^2fg')}{(\alpha^2f^2 + \beta^2g^2)(f'^2 + g'^2)}.$$

Consequently, the invariants  $k$ ,  $\varkappa$  and  $K$  of  $M^2$  are:

$$\begin{aligned} k &= \frac{-4\alpha^2\beta^2(gf' - fg')^2(g'f'' - f'g'')(\beta^2gf' - \alpha^2fg')}{(\alpha^2f^2 + \beta^2g^2)^3(f'^2 + g'^2)^3}; \\ \varkappa &= \frac{\alpha\beta(gf' - fg')}{(\alpha^2f^2 + \beta^2g^2)^2(f'^2 + g'^2)^2} ((\alpha^2f^2 + \beta^2g^2)(g'f'' - f'g'') - (f'^2 + g'^2)(\beta^2gf' - \alpha^2fg')); \\ K &= \frac{(\alpha^2f^2 + \beta^2g^2)(\beta^2gf' - \alpha^2fg')(g'f'' - f'g'') - \alpha^2\beta^2(f'^2 + g'^2)(gf' - fg')^2}{(\alpha^2f^2 + \beta^2g^2)^2(f'^2 + g'^2)^2}. \end{aligned}$$

Now we shall find the generalized rotational surfaces with  $k = 0$ . Without loss of generality we assume that the meridian  $m$  is defined by  $f = u$ ;  $g = g(u)$ . Then

$$k = \frac{4\alpha^2\beta^2(g - ug')^2g''(\beta^2g - \alpha^2ug')}{(\alpha^2u^2 + \beta^2g^2)^3(1 + g'^2)^3};$$

The invariant  $k$  is zero in the following three cases:

1.  $g(u) = au$ ,  $a = \text{const} \neq 0$ . In that case  $k = \varkappa = K = 0$ , and  $M^2$  is a developable surface in  $\mathbb{R}^4$ .

2.  $g(u) = au + b$ ,  $a = \text{const} \neq 0$ ,  $b = \text{const} \neq 0$ . In this case  $k = 0$ , but  $\varkappa \neq 0$ ,  $K \neq 0$ . Consequently,  $M^2$  is a non-developable ruled surface in  $\mathbb{R}^4$ .

3.  $g(u) = cu^{\frac{\beta^2}{\alpha^2}}$ ,  $c = \text{const} \neq 0$ . In case of  $\alpha \neq \beta$  we get  $k = 0$ , and the invariants  $\varkappa$  and  $K$  are given by

$$\begin{aligned} \varkappa &= \frac{c^2\beta^3(\beta^2 - \alpha^2)^2u^{2\frac{\beta^2-\alpha^2}{\alpha^2}}}{\alpha^5 \left( \alpha^2u^2 + \beta^2c^2u^{2\frac{\beta^2}{\alpha^2}} \right) \left( 1 + c^2\frac{\beta^4}{\alpha^4}u^{2\frac{\beta^2-\alpha^2}{\alpha^2}} \right)^2}; \\ K &= -\frac{c^2\beta^2(\beta^2 - \alpha^2)^2u^{2\frac{\beta^2}{\alpha^2}}}{\alpha^2 \left( \alpha^2u^2 + \beta^2c^2u^{2\frac{\beta^2}{\alpha^2}} \right)^2 \left( 1 + c^2\frac{\beta^4}{\alpha^4}u^{2\frac{\beta^2-\alpha^2}{\alpha^2}} \right)}. \end{aligned}$$

Hence,  $\varkappa \neq 0$ ,  $K \neq 0$ . In this case the parametric lines  $u = \text{const}$  and  $v = \text{const}$  are not straight lines. This is a non-trivial example of generalized rotational surfaces with  $k = 0$ .

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